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ABSTRACT

The student booklet presents short chapters illustrating the migration unit of the Minneapolis Multi-Ethnic Curriculum Project for secondary schools. Sixteen brief chapters describe migration, immigration, and emigration in the United States. The first six chapters offer first person accounts of immigrants from Norway, Korea, Egypt, Hitler's Germany, and Yugoslavia. These are of both early and contemporary immigrants. Other chapters present brief histories of immigration in the United States including a discussion of laws and quotas, and the Chinese, Mexican, and Finnish migrations. One chapter describes the slave trade and offers a related simulation game, while another relates the story of the removal of the Choctaw Indians from Mississippi to Indian Territory. The final two chapters discuss the contemporary movement of blacks to Atlanta, Georgia and patterns of moving in the United States today. (CK)

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TENTATIVE

MINNEAPOLIS Multi-Ethnic Curriculum Project - MIGRATION UNIT

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IX

SP 012 422

MINNEAPOLIS PUBLIC SCHOOLS

MINNEAPOLIS MULTIETHNIC CURRICULUM PROJECT

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THE IMMIGRANT WRITES HOME

The "Sloopers" were the first organized group of immigrants from Norway. They arrived here 150 years ago.

For years Norwegian immigrants sent letters to relatives and friends at home. Sometimes these letters were printed in local newspapers all over Norway. They presented certain images of America. They gave a mighty push to emigration.

Until the steamship, the crossing of the great Atlantic in overcrowded, unsanitary sailing ships was a difficult test. It was described in many an "America letter." Good captains were a blessing. Sometimes, after landing, such a captain would go with his passengers on the first leg of their journey. This letter tells of such a captain:

"We are now in New York. We have not had to worry much about the problems of our transportation to the interior of the country. Captain Westergaard himself has ordered a steamboat for us at a low rate. He has also promised to go with us to Troy, a distance of 180 miles. It will be sad when we have to leave our good Captain Westergaard. With the greatest care, kindness, and obligingness he has gone with us on this long journey...."

The Atlantic crossing was an unforgettable adventure. It was an experience of feelings, fears and hopes. "At the memory of you, my home, friends, relatives, I shed many bitter tears," wrote one homesick young man.

A typical letter fron an early settler encouraged family

and friends to come to this good land. He wrote, in 1835:

"Nothing has made me more happy than that we left Norway and came to this country. We have gained more since our arrival here than I did during all the time I lived in Norway. I have every prospect of earning a living here for myself and my family—even if my family becomes larger—so long as God gives me good health....It would greatly please me to learn that all of you who are in need and have little chance of supporting yourselves and your families have decided to leave Norway and come to America. Even if many more come, there will still be room here for all. Those who are willing to work will not lack employment or business here. It is possible for all to live in comfort and without want."

One man wrote to give "exact information about conditions in this country," to some who planned to emigrate in 1838:

"Consider (1) that you do not speak the language; (2) whether you have enough money to travel further inland after your arrival here....The last ship brought about 90 of my countrymen here. Most of them came to my house and stayed there almost three days. I sent about 30 of them on to Illinois. The rest are still in my house. 12 more arrived one day after the others. The country is good, but everyone can understand that lack of money here is the same as anywhere else.

But the emigrants came—nearly 1,000 a year in the 1840s. In the 1850s an average of more than 4,000 came each year.

By the time of the Civil War almost 70,000 Norwegians had become Norwegian Americans. After the war still more came, almost 14,000 a year. In 1883, 28,000 left their homes in Norway. Many received their tickets to America from family and friends here. By 1890, many who came were craftsmen, not farmers. They settled in the big cities—Brooklyn, Chicago, Minneapolis, Seattle. Enclaves of fellow-countrymen welcomed them.

Many immigrants were very religious. Year after year in the 1870's locusts plagued the settlers in Iowa.

"Last year the pests left enough so that we had our food and seed for the following year. But this summer they ate everything except a little of the corn and the potatoes. This was a hard blow for a family as large as ours. Yet it is wonderful how our heavenly Father has sustained us. We have all that we need for our survival. I have the firm hope that He will continue to hold His protecting hand over us."

The next year the "pests" came again:

"...causing a great deal of damage, but they left enough so that we have a living for the winter. However, since they laid eggs, prospects are very dark for next year. If all the eggs should hatch, there would not be a blade of grass left.

A reader is impressed with the hard work of the immigrants - forests cut down; soil was tilled; mines were worked; railroads were built. There was work for all, but it was WORK! One immigrant wrote: "America will always be unhealthful,

and no Norseman is ever going to be happy here." He and his wife had been ill with fever. Sickness was widespread. The work was too hard.

The letters are filled with reports of great difficulties:

"In no circumstances would I return to live in Norway.... It seems rather foolish to me to live in so poor a place and upon such barren ground as Odefield. Fertile fields lie untouched in America partly for ignorance of the fertility of this land and partly for fear of emigration. Here in America a much better way of living is open to every honorable citizen.... Every poor person who will work hard and faithfully can become a well-to-do man here in a short time....Though I have been sick almost a half year and have a family to take care of, still I have achieved much more than a worker can in Norway. We are now well and happy and my two oldest children have attended the English school. They understand the language fairly well—much better than I."

A letter was written in 1845 by a group of 80 immigrants "to Norwegians in the Old Country":

"There are some who complain of the trials that immigrants at first must meet. All such persons should feel a sense of shame when they recall what history has to tell of the suffering of those earliest immigrants who opened the way for coming generations by founding the first colony in the United States, the Virginia Colony."

"Should not we...with brighter prospects than theirs (the Colonists') entertain the hope of gaining what we need to

sustain life! ...We have no expectation of gaining riches; but we live under a liberal government in a fruitful land. Freedom and equality are the rule in religious as in civil matters. Each of us is at liberty to earn his living practically as he chooses. Such opportunities are more to be desired than riches."

TROVATTEN'S JOURNAL

I reached an agreement with the captain about passage to New York. I was to pay $33 per person for me and my wife and $25 for each of the children. In addition there was the expense of provisions for the trip. I was left with $16. This was all the cash I had.

We boarded our ship "Emilie" on May 17.

Our progress was slow and cumbersome.

On July 14 we reached the Newfoundland Banks. We tried our fishing tackle but had no luck.

Finally, on August 11 we reached the quarantine place near New York. Here we cast anchor. Soon two doctors came aboard to examine the passengers. They wanted to make sure we would not bring any diseases into the country. The inspection went well. On August 12 a man arrived with a little sailboat to take the passengers to the pier.

First we were taken to a kind of "washing house." There all our clothing was examined. Also, all our trunks were opened for inspection. Fortunately, everything went well. If our clothes had not passed inspection, we would have been forced to remain in this house several days to clean them.

...They then traveled from New York to Illinois....

When I arrived in the town, I did not have a single penny. I did not understand a word of the language. I regretted that I had left Norway. My wife, however, was a true comfort to me. A man lent me $4. This allowed me to buy food for

my family.

Some people let me and my family stay with them several days. I first got a job fixing up a house. A man gave us lodgings for the winter. During the winter I worked for half a dollar per day. This was always paid in goods.

I always try to keep employed in order to pay for food and clothing. With God's help we have not suffered any need. We have been better off than we were in Norway. We have even managed to save a little money. While I was hoping to buy land and get ahead in the world, my wife, my oldest child, and I were taken sick. The disease is called "Fever Ague." It passed away quickly. My wife and child were sick for five weeks, I for seven. A long time passed before we could work again. All our strength had been sapped away.

Up to now my fortune in the New World has been varied. Generally I have been bowed down with hard work in order to provide for my family and myself. I believe, however, that the future will ease my burdens. I feel that the laboring man can do well here. America rewards her workers far better than Norway. At present there is a great shortage of money here. Even under such conditions this country is able to make every laborer a rich and independent man.

Practically all necessary products are raised in this country. As far as I know, any kind of crop can be grown here. Either winter wheat or spring wheat can be grown here. Winter wheat is sown during the months of September, October, November, and

December. It is usually harvested toward the end of July. Spring wheat is sown in March or early April and is harvested some three, or four weeks later than winter wheat.

The soil here is very rich. The topsoil is usually black. The subsoil consists partly of clay and partly of sand. Most of this region is wooded.

Many religions are found here. Some are very different from the Lutheranism familiar to us.

All the people from Ireland, England, Scotland, and France, and part of those from Germany are Catholics. From Norway have come many Quakers. There are numerous heathens, Jews, Baptists, Mormons, and Mohammedans. All the Americans are good in reading and writing, women as well as men. Some of them believe in a sound religion resembling our own Lutheranism. Most of the people are good citizens. They dislike all sorts of dishonesty. There are two judges in every township. If a person wants a trial, he can get his case decided the same day.

KOREAN HYO PAI MOVES HIS FAMILY TO THE UNITED STATES

Hyo Shick Pai is a 45-year-old Los Angeles importer. He left Korea ten years ago. Pai is a member of one of the largest and most successful groups of new immigrants to the United States.

The Korean immigration is mostly a middle-class movement of people. They want more economic and educational opportunity than their small country can offer. Hyo Pai is a graduate of Seoul National University. That is the most respected higher education institution in South Korea. His specialty was English literature. He was a college teacher when he left for the United States. He came here to study.

Pai applied to study abroad, because he was told he had no chance of becoming a professor unless he had taken courses in England or the United States. He enrolled at the University of California at Los Angeles because his sponsor was a cousin who lived in Los Angeles.

"Why didn't I go back?" he asks. "It's a complicated question, because my family wasn't poor. It's partly the nature of the society there. Korean society is very closed in a way that it's difficult for someone who has grown up in a large country to understand."

Pai was already married when he left Korea. He and his wife Hyun (rhymes with Diane) had one- and three-year-old sons and a two-year-old daughter. Pai says his children were important in his decision to stay in America.

"Teachers are poorly paid in Korea," he says, "Even though they have a great deal of honor and respect. After I saw America, I felt I would at least want to give my children the chance to study aboard. They should see other societies as well as their own. I couldn't have

done that on a teacher's salary in Korea. And my family isn't that wealthy."

Both Mr. and Mrs. Pai worked to make a success of the move to the United States. They brought enough money -- representing everything they owned in Korea -- to buy a small four-unit apartment building in Los Angeles. Hyun managed the building while Hyo took two jobs. One was a warehouse manager for an American import firm. The other, on the night shift was as the operator of a check-processing machine in a bank. In two years, the Pais saved $10,000.

Pai started his own import firm. He changed his business from importing pants to importing rope, jute and sisal, because so many other Koreans also jumped into the market. "We're a very competitive people," he says. "Other people who had come here saw that my business was doing well, and they came in too."

The Pais and their children are all naturalized American citizens. They feel that Koreans, like other immigrants, have been influenced by American movements that stress racial and ethnic pride. "I think it's better to be an immigrant today than it was in America 100 years ago," Pai says. "There's much more tolerance for differences in America now. You don't have to forget everything that you were before to find a place here."

Pai spends four nights a week teaching English to fellow immigrants. Because retaining the culture of their homeland is important to them, the Pai's send their three children to Korean Sunday school. There they can receive consistent exposure to their native language.

ONE ARAB'S IMMIGRATION

Today A. Joseph Howar is 89 years old, or perhaps it's 90; he isn't sure. A retired contractor and builder, he is a wealthy man. He can say that he built the first high-rise apartment house in Virginia. He built many, many more in Washington, D.C., after that. He has paid for a mosque, a school, and a cemetery for his native town in the Middle East. But Joseph Howar is most proud of the part he played in building Washington's beautiful Islamic Center. This is the North American core of Islamic instruction and worship. It was Howar, a Muslim, who lead in providing money for the Center. It was he too who guided construction of it. Now he can say: "I love this place. It is mother and father to me."

Howar's immigration to America is like the moves made by thousands of Arabs around the turn of the century. Here is his own account of it:

It was around 1900 that I first started thinking of leaving. I was perhaps 15 -- certainly not older. Palestine was under the Ottoman Enpire then, you know. The Turks were taking all the young men into the army at about age 17; I was too young, thank God. And I was very small for my age. I've always had a slight build. Looking back, it probably was the Turkish army and my size that prompted me to leave home. I wanted to avoid the army. And I was tired of being told that I was too small "to be worth the skin of an onion" as a worker in the fields. Very quietly I made my plans. And when I had saved enough, I took a carriage to Jaffa and stowed away on a ship.

That ship went only to Egypt. I had no money left. I found work

as a servant in a wealthy family's home. A few weeks later I boarded another ship. I thought I would work my way to England or America. But that ship went the other way. I ended up in Bombay. Through the mosque there, though, I again found work as a servant. But that Indian family liked me too much. They wanted me to stay until I was old enough to marry their daughter. The ship that I came on returned to Bombay after about six months. This time it was headed for England, and this time the captain welcomed me aboard. I worked for my passage to Southampton. There I found work as a servant and stayed on long enough to earn money for passage to New York. I reached New York in 1903 with $65. I was a rich man!

My true name is Mohammed Asa Abu-Howah. But people I met on the boat told me I'd better change my name. They said it labeled me as a Muslim, and no immigration officer would allow a Muslim to enter the United States. I had two cousins who'd become American citizens. One had taken the name of Abraham and the other Joseph. So I took both those names. Since the British had pronounced Howah as if it were Howar, I made my American name A. Joseph Howar. That's how I was naturalized in 1908.

When I reached New York, one of the immigration officers asked me where I was going. I didn't know. So I asked him, "Where does your king live?" He laughed at me. "We don't have a king in America," he said; "we have a President, and he lives in Washington, D.C." "Then I'll go to Washington, D.C." I told him; "if it's good enough for the President, it's good enough for me."

I had to find work in Washington, of course. I saw a man peddling bananas from a pushcart. I asked him to start me as a pushcart peddler.

But he said I was too small to push the cart. I then found work in a hotel kitchen, cleaning silver and doing all kinds of jobs. One night, though, I walked outside the hotel and heard two men speaking Arabic. They told me they were back peddlers. They agreed to let me join them on their trips into Virginia and Delaware. I began selling women's clothing, door to door. But I soon found that my "partners" were cheating me. They'd raise the wholesale prices on my goods. They also took half my profits. After a few months of peddling, though, I'd learned what the goods should cost. I also knew where I could get my own. I decided to go it alone. When summer came, I took my goods up to the New Jersey shore. The pretty ladies would be sitting on porches. I'd joke with them -- tell them funny stories -- and they'd buy from me. I was 17 or so, and very small and peppy and smiling, and they liked me. So I soon had many friends and many customers. I made enough money to open a store in Washington with another man. We sold only women's clothing. Soon we were earning $30,000 to $40,000 a year -- and that was in the early 1900s!

About that time, an architect talked me into becoming his partner to build an apartment house. I had $27,000 to put into it. All he had were the plans he'd drawn. He supervised the building. We built two buildings. We made about $50,000 on them. The architect took too long to build them. I told him I'd do any further building on my own. "How are you going to do that?" he asked. "You can't even read and write." I answered that I could sign my name. My signature along with my reputation for honesty and hard work would get me just about everything else I needed. It did, too.

I began completing buildings in three or four months. I'd build

them quickly and sell them quickly. My secret was simple: the others used a foreman of laborers, a foreman of carpenters, a foreman of steelworkers, and so on. They were always at fighting. I used one foreman -- a contractor. We both worked very hard. I made a $69,000 profit on the first big apartment house we built. When my banker saw that I could do that, he said, "Build all you want; my bank will provide the credit you need." I knew then that I was in the building business for good.

THE JEWISH FLIGHT FROM HITLER'S GERMANY

Hans Muenzer was 24 years old and working in a Berlin department store when Adolf Hitler came to power. It didn't take Muenzer long to decide to leave.

"I lost my job the minute Hitler came to power. Even at that time I saw him as a threat to my life and I decided right away to leave.

"But it was not easy to leave or get into other countries" recalls Muenzer.

For in 1933, when Hitler came to power in Germany, the United States did not welcome people coming from Europe.

A law had been passed that established immigration limits for each of the world's nations. The yearly limit for Germany was 26,000 immigrants.

Due to the Depression which left many people without jobs and to some American attitudes at that time, rules were made to keep people from coming to the United States.

While America was keeping people out, Hitler was pushing Muenzer and thousands of other Jews to seek a way out of Germany.

Almost from the moment of his coming to power, Hitler attacked his country's 500,000 Jewish citizens.

Their property was taken away, their rights were denied, their jobs were taken from them. People would not buy from Jewish businesses, and the Jews were often physically attacked and nothing was done about it.

One of the reasons it was not easy for Muenzer and other Jews to leave Germany was that the United States would not let many people into the country.

In order to come, Muenzer had to have a sponsor in the United States.

The results of the U.S. attitudes can be seen in German immigration limits for 1933 through 1935. During those years when 78,000 Germans could have entered this country under the existing limit system, about 11,500 entered— of whom about one-third were Jewish.

Muenzer, who is 63 now, and lives in Minneapolis, Minnesota, remembers how difficult it was to leave the country.

"The difficulty started with the German government. We had to pay tax on everything we took out. We went from one official to another. It took weeks and weeks."

"In the end the only thing we could take out were our clothes and about $5 in cash," he recalls.

After trying unsuccessfully to get into Australia, Muenzer applied for an American entry permit in 1938.

"We waited and waited about 15 months. Anyway it was too long. I'll never forget that German official sitting at his desk with his feet up," recalls Muenzer.

By 1938, the German treatment of the Jews was worse, and on one night in November the Nazis destroyed, mostly by burning Jewish homes and synagogues. They robbed and even killed many Jews.

Mrs. Loretta (Lucky) Levy was 15 years old then and lived

in Berlin.

She recalls walking the streets with her father that night.

"He thought you would be better off anywhere than in your house," she says.

Mrs. Levy also remembers 1936, the year of the Berlin Olympics.

"For those two weeks, the yellow park benches were gone, we didn't have to wear our yellow armbands* and we could buy ice cream cones in the corner ice cream store," she says.

Her family, too, had difficulty leaving Germany.

"We were on a waiting list for entry permits for three years. I remember Dad going to the American Embassy every day and waiting in line.

"Dad even went so far as to look through the phone books of large American cities and find people with our name, Bellson."

"There weren't many and he wrote a letter to every one asking for help in leaving the country. He didn't get a single reply."

Her family left Germany in 1939, shortly before the outbreak of World War II.

Once out of the country, many Jews were able to aid other relatives in their flight.

Mrs. Hansi Ucko left Germany in 1937 and arrived in Minneapolis after a brief stay in New York City.

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*These were used to separate the Jews from other Germans.

Before World War II stopped all paths of escape, Mrs. Ucko and her husband were able to get entry permits for most of their relatives including one of her brothers who was in a German concentration camp.

"Even so," she recalls now, "I lost nine relatives who were killed."

While Muenzer, Mrs. Levy and Mrs. Ucko chose the legal method of escaping Germany, many other German Jews were not so patient.

They sought refuge in other European countries.

Others sought refuge in Sweden and Switzerland and survived.

Some even took boats to Shanghai, an open port where no entry permits were needed, and waited for the war to end only to be caught in the Japanese capture of China.

When Hans Muenzer arrived in Minneapolis, he found not only 20 below zero weather but anti-Jewish attitudes.

"It has lessened over the years and it is not so obvious now. But when we arrived we found anti-Jewish attitudes worse than it had been in Germany in pre-Hitler days," he says.

"My father noticed it in his business," Mrs. Levy recalls, "and there were places we couldn't move to and clubs we couldn't belong to. The most amazing was the Automobile club."

Muenzer also found that the Jewish community in Minneapolis wanted little to do with refugees.

"Socially the American Jews didn't care for us. They

gave us money and said 'leave us alone,'" Muenzer said.

Mrs. Ucko and Muenzer have both been back to Germany since the end of the war and neither wants to go back again.

"I went back to the city I was born in," Muenzer said. "I didn't know one person, not one. It was the most depressing thing that has happened to me."

Mrs. Ucko, who lives in Minneapolis, has made two brief visits to Germany in recent years.

"The first time I went back to my hometown it was terrible. I went to visit the graves. Nobody had survived."

As for living in Germany, Mrs. Ucko had this answer.

"I wouldn't go back if they would give me a million dollars. I love to be here," she said.

While Muenzer, too, loves the United States and has no desire to return to Germany, he and many German Jews are concerned about this country's attitudes in the 1930s.

"A few Scandinavian countries saved every Jew they could. America did not lift a finger beyond the limit system.

"They did nothing and yet they took in hundreds of thousands of Cubans with no entry permits required.

"The American Jews tried but the American government didn't do a thing."

In the period 1931-1940, 528,000 persons were admitted.

Had all the immigrants allowed under the existing limit system been admitted, more than 1.5 million could have entered the country.

THE STORY OF A MODERN IMMIGRANT

In the summer of 1966, I came to the United States as a tourist. I was visiting some American universities and colleges where geography was taught. Besides, I had never been in America before. I wanted to see this great country, to meet as many people as possible, to learn about the everyday life of Americans. I wanted to see beautiful places, such as Yellowstone Park, Teton Park, and the canyon of the Colorado River, as well as Las Vegas, Reno, Hollywood, Disneyland. I managed to see these and many others. In total I visited thirty-two American states. At that time, in 1966, I was twenty-six years old and was able to travel without much rest. I expected to stay in America for about five months. At the end of the second month of my visit my money ran out. So I prepared for my return to Yugoslavia. I arrived there with about six dollars left in my pocket. American prices were much higher than in Europe. I could not stay five months in America, as I had planned.

The trip to the United States made a great impression on me. I met many people, especially young persons. My professional colleagues, the geographers, suggested that I come to America to study. Thus, I decided to go to America once more. I planned to get a doctor's degree, since I already had a master's degree in geography from the University of Belgrade. I sent quite a few letters to American universities.

Besides applying for admission, I also applied for financial aid. I was accepted by three universities. Since the University of Minnesota was the best school in geography, I decided to go to Minneapolis.

My departure in 1967 was very difficult for my family. My mother and sister cried. Even my father and brother almost cried. I held on well until I found myself in the airplane. Then I cried a short time. My expectation was to get a degree and return to my native country.

I was very disappointed with the quality of American family homes. I found them clean and well organized, but I was not impressed with the quality of construction. I wondered how Americans dare to live in lumber homes. These homes can catch on fire easily. Besides this, the homes are not bullet-proof. Most European homes are built of brick or stone. I felt that American homes should be even stronger to protect people from "gangsters."

I barely got set in Minneapolis when it was time to start work at the University. For money I had to work twenty hours a week on a research project. This was a nice chance to meet other students. I was happy when I started to work for the project. The professor and the students were very kind and helpful.

The second part of that September, 1967, was very difficult for me. I had run out of money. I felt embarrassed to ask people for help. For about two weeks I ate only one or two meals a day at a hamburger shop. At the end, I was penniless.

I had to borrow a few dollars from two students to survive. One of those evenings I cried in my dormitory room. I wanted to go back to Yugoslavia, but I did not have any money for the trip.

Despite my study of English in Yugoslavia, the language caused serious problems in my studies. Because of my poor English I had to cancel a class. The professor assigned a book review. I had a book of 830 pages to review. I had to give my presentation five days after the assignment. The professor did not realize my problems with English. I got the book, went to my room and started to read the book with the help of a dictionary. After about six hours of reading, I had managed to read about three pages. At such a speed I could not get the job done even within five months. I am a stubborn person. I did not go to the professor to explain the problem. I cancelled his class, and registered for another one in which the professor did not require a book review.

After about three months at the University of Minnesota, my English showed improvement. But I was still slow compared to American students. With help from other students and professors I improved gradually. At one time I felt like giving up everything and going back to Yugoslavia. But I was afraid my friends there would make fun of me. I felt that, if I failed, the Americans would think that Yugoslavs are stupid. Therefore, I spent many hours in learning.

One year after my arrival, I caught up with American students in reading. My second year at the University was very good. I managed to make faster progress in my studying than average American students. In March I passed an important test. After that my education went very well. I finally received my degree in November, 1970.

When I came to the United States, I planned to return to Yugoslavia. So far, I have not been able to go back for even a visit. My wife and I have planned every summer to go there for a vacation. I guess that I did not learn from my first stay in the United States that one spends more money in America than in Europe. It is difficult to save for such a trip. But I am sure that my family will one day go to Europe. Perhaps we might find Europe attractive and decide to settle there, at least for several years.

A BRIEF HISTORY OF IMMIGRATION

The great movement of peoples to the U.S. has been different from other world migrations.

Immigrants to this country have been people of all races, cultures, and creeds. Among them have been great champions of human liberty, great leaders, artists, engineers, inventors, musicians. Most immigrants, however, were common people looking for a better life here.

The few colonists who came to America in the early 1600's began a migration which became the greatest mass movement of people in history.

Early English settlers set up colonies of about 100 persons at Jamestown and Plymouth. A small band of Dutch settled New Amsterdam, while a few French set up outposts along the Mississippi River, later settling in Louisiana. A group of Swedes settled at Fort Christina, Delaware. Colonies in the Southwest and Florida were established by groups of Spaniards.

From these small beginnings the colonial population grew to 275,000 by 1700. More and more colonists began to come to this new land.

The 1790 census shows that more than 75 percent of the population at that time had a British background. Germans accounted for 8 percent, and smaller parts came from the Netherlands, France, Sweden, and Spain.

During this early period, each colony set up its own standards for immigrants, with rules varying from colony to colony. In general, immigration was encouraged. Communities welcomed newcomers who could help provide protection for life and property.

Some persons at that time believed immigration should be controlled.

Benjamin Franklin commented on the large number of Germans in Pennsylvania and the possibility of needing interpreters in the State assembly. Thomas Jefferson did not think immigration from countries with royal governments was a good idea. George Washington thought unlimited immigration was not wise. When John Quincy Adams was Secretary of State in 1819, he said that the Government had never officially encouraged people to leave Europe. Adams said that immigrants were not to expect favors. He added, however, that those who became citizens could expect the same rights as those who were born here.

There were no Federal laws on immigration for almost a hundred years after the United States was founded. The Alien Act of 1798 gave the President power to order any "dangerous" alien to leave the United States. This law expired after two years.

Immigration records were first kept in 1820. This followed an act passed in 1819 requiring ship passenger lists to be given to the Government. These lists formed the basis of early immigration statistics.

Between 1820 and 1880, ten million immigrants came to the United States. Most of these people came from northern and western Europe. Many Germans came to America between 1840 and 1850 because of unfavorable industrial and trade prospects and political unrest. Potato crop failures in Ireland during 1845-1847 sent thousands of Irish to seaports to board ships bound for America. British, French, Norwegians and Swedes also came in large numbers to betin a new life.

Making the voyage to America was not easy or comfortable. Sailing ships were overcrowded. Many took 3 or 4 months to make the crossing. Supplies of food and water were often used up before the

ship made port. Sanitary facilities were poor. Smallpox and other diseases took their toll.

Complaints about such travel conditions resulted in laws to improve the passenger ships. Such acts were passed in 1819, 1847, 1848, and 1855. The Act of 1848 required passenger ships to carry adequate food supplies and to provide a cookstove for poorer passengers.

It was during the middle and late 1800's that the steamship came into use. Sailing vessels carried 96 percent of all passengers who arrived in New York in 1856. By 1873, only 17 years later, 96 percent of all arrivals came by steamship. The steamship made the voyage in about 2 weeks. Steamship agents looked for passengers among European immigrants. Land and industrial interests attracted people to the U.S. Immigrants living here sent money for friends and relatives wanting to come to America.

Not all Americans liked immigration. In the early 1830's a group known as the "Nativists" were against immigration. The chief aim of that group was to stop immigration.

Feelings against immigrants and foreign-born citizens were centered in the Nativist "American" political party. This party was known as the "Know-Nothing" party. The "Know-Nothings" were strong from about 1850 through 1856.

Although Congress had passed a law in 1875 to prevent entry of convicts and prostitutes, the first general immigration law was made in 1882. That act provided for a tax of 50 cents per person and barred the admission of convicts, and other undesirables.

Congress also passed the "Chinese Exclusion Act" in 1882. Few Chinese had come to the United States before 1850. Between 1850 and

1882, however, about 200,000 Chinese arrived here. The big increase was due to famine in part of China and to the demand for laborers following the discovery of gold in California. Shipping companies also urged Chinese to come to the United States.

Chinese were first employed as laborers in gold mining camps. Later large numbers were employed in railroad construction. As the number of Chinese increased, the Asians met increasing opposition from labor groups in most fields. This anti-Chinese feeling forced Chinese to turn to employment in agriculture, domestic service, and small business.

Congress passed the first contract labor law on February 26, 1885. It was designed to protect the pay scale of American labor by stopping importation of cheap foreign labor.

Immigration to the United States grew rapidly after 1880. Between 1881 and 1920, twenty-three and one-half million immigrants came to this country. Nearly 90 percent came from Europe. Between 1881 and 1890, 80 percent of the European immigrants came from northern and western Europe. Between 1911 and 1920, only 23 percent came from the north and west, while 77 percent came from southern and eastern Europe.

During the period 1881-1920, more than 4 million Italian immigrants arrived. Also, almost 4 million immigrants came from Austria-Hungary and more than 3 million from Russia.

Conditions in southern Europe encouraged people to seek homes elsewhere. There were few agricultural, political, or social reforms. Birth rates and unemployment were high. In addition, improvements in travel tended to encourage emigration.

Information about the United States was easy to get. American

employers and steamship agents actively helped immigration. Immigrants in the United States continued to urge friends from home to join them.

Conditions in the United States also had an effect on immigration. By 1880 most of the public lands good for agriculture had been taken up. The years 1881 through 1920 saw a great growth of industry in the United States. Industrial expansion increased the demand for labor. The need for industrial manpower thus became the greatest "pull" favoring immigration. Work was simplified, helping industry to use untrained and unskilled workers.

A second general immigration law was passed in 1891. That law called for medical inspection of all arriving immigrants. It also barred entry of those suffering from certain diseases. Another part called for deportation of all aliens who had entered the United States illegally.

In 1903, Congress passed a general immigration law which excluded the insane, professional beggars, and political rebels.

Congress broadened this law in 1907 to bar entry of the feeble-minded, persons suffering from mental or physical defects that might affect their ability to earn a living, and those who had committed certain crimes. Children under 16 not accompanied by their parents were also barred.

The public favored more laws to control immigration. A commission was appointed in 1907 to study the problem. Its report, generally known as the "Dillingham Report," was published in 1911.

No selective immigration laws were passed until 1917. The 1917 Act included all previous limitations on immigrants. In addition, that Act barred persons coming from an area known as the "Asiatic Barred Zone" included most of Asia and the Pacific islands. Another part of

the Act was the requirement that immigrants be able to read and write.

Almost 5 million immigrants were admitted to the United States during the years 1921-1940. More than 4 million of these came during the 1920's.

In 1921 Congress passed a temporary quota (limit) act. This was the first law placing a limit on the number of immigrants who could come to the United States. The limit in that act was based on the 1910 census. About 350,000 persons were allowed to come to the United States each year.

In 1924 Congress passed a permanent quota law. Both the 1921 and the 1924 Acts had a "national origins" provision. This meant that the number of any nationality admitted was a percentage of the foreign-born persons of that nationality in the United States. Since there were more people from Western and Northern Europe living in the U.S., this Act favored immigrants from those countries.

People from Western Hemisphere countries were not included in the quota system of the 1924 Act. Immigration from these countries to the United States from 1925 through 1940 was about the same as from other countries.

Western Hemisphere immigration averaged more than 125,000 a year from 1925 to 1929, and dropped to a yearly average of 18,000 in the 1930's. This included sharp rises in immigration from Canada and Mexico after 1924.

The conditions throughout the world during the Second World War caused a drop in immigration. Only 170,952 immigrants came here during the entire period 1941-1945. The 23,725 immigrants who came to

the United States in 1943 were the smallest number since 1831, except for the year 1933.

The first act about the removal of racial barriers to immigration came in 1943. Congress overturned previous acts which had excluded Chinese. A Chinese quota was set up, and Chinese immigrants were able to become citizens.

Shortly after the war, in 1946 Congress made it possible for people from India and the Phillipines to become citizens. Before that only Filipinos with United States military service had been eligible. Racial bars to citizenship were completely abolished in 1952.

After World War II, immigration increased each year from 1946 and reached its peak in 1957. This was partly due to bad conditions in other parts of the world. Laws during this period allowed groups such as war brides, refugees, and orphans to enter.

Of the immigrants who came to the United States between 1946 and 1959, about 700,000 were displaced persons and refugees.

The displaced persons represented many religious faiths and cultural backgrounds. Three-fourths of them came from Poland, Germany, Latvia, the U.S.S.R., and Yugoslavia. Often they came in large family groups. Many of them made application for United States citizenship very soon after reaching the U.S. Refugees fled from Communist or Communist-dominated countries.

Beginning in 1954, most of the refugees entered under the provisions of the Refugee Relief Act of 1953. Under this Act, American citizens sponsored the 189,021 people admitted and gave assurance of housing and jobs for them. Included in this total were 6,130 Hungarians who had escaped into Austria following the revolution in Hungary in

October 1956.

Admission was granted to Portuguese nationals displaced from their homes in the Azores by earthquake and floods. The same law that admitted this group, also allowed Netherlands nationals, who were displaced from their homes in Indonesia, to enter.

After World War II and the Korean conflict, thousands of children were abandoned or orphaned. Congress included orphan programs in the refugee acts. From 1948, until the end of the 1957 law, about 20,000 orphaned children were brought to this country. Three-fourths of these children came from Germany, Italy, Greece, Japan, and Korea. The first permanent law about orphans was the Act of September 26, 1961.

The 1960's brought the abolition of the national origins principle of setting immigration limits. The Immigration and Nationality Act was amended by the Act of October 3, 1965, which became effective December 1, 1965. This Act keeps a limit on immigration, but has done away with national quotas. The new system provides for 170,000 immigrants each year from the Eastern Hemisphere. Countries of the Western Hemisphere are limited to 120,000.

During the 1960's immigration continued with over 3 million immigrants admitted to the United States. Several refugee acts were passed. The 1965 Act allows entry of 10,200 refugees annually.

A mass flight of refugees from Cuba began in 1958. More and more Cubans fled to the United States. Refugees arrived in the United States during 1961 at a rate of 1,600 to 1,700 per week. On December 1, 1965, the United States started an airlift from Cuba to Miami of from 3,000 to 4,000 refugees a month.

The most recent refugees are those coming from Indochina to the United States.

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INSTRUCTIONS TO SLAVE TRADERS

In this activity you will act as the owner of a slave trading company. Your major goal is to make as much money as possible.

Your first step is to plan how you will allocate your money. You will begin the game with $1,500 in capital. Slaves must be shipped in groups of 25; that is, you may send 25, 50, 100, 125, etc., per ship but not 12, 30, 70, or other numbers not multiples of 25. Each ship you send on the voyage will cost you $500 fixed operating cost. This pays for the crew's wages, supplies, insurance, etc. The cost per slave during your first year of operation will be $10, and for this first year you may send no more than 150 slaves per ship.

Round One: 1700: Now look at the figure sheet for 1700. Fill in the blank next to "Capital" with the total amount of money you have ($1,500). The first column shows the number of each ship (for this year you cannot afford to send more than two ships). The second column is titled "Number of Slaves". In this column you will indicate the number of slaves you will send on each ship. The total you may spend is the figure you have recorded as capital at the top of the sheet. Continue your allocations until you have utilized all your capital. If, after you have made your allocations, you still have cash on hand, you may place it in savings.

Once you have made your allocations you are ready to find out how successful your first year of trading has been. You will receive one condition card for each ship you sent (the first card you draw is for ship #1, the second for ship #2, etc.). On these cards are the conditions experienced during the voyage and the percentage of your cargo that was lost because of these conditions. On "smooth voyage" cards there is no loss. Place the percentage of loss for each ship in the second column of the Outcome Sheet next to the number of that ship. Then figure out how many slaves survived the voyage on each ship and put that number in the third column. Multiply the number of surviving slaves on each ship by 50. That will give you the total value of the slaves on each ship. Add the total value of all ships and your savings, if any, and that will be your total income for the year. An example of how to figure your outcomes is given below:

Note: When your percentage loss comes to a fractional number of slaves, round the number lost to the nearest whole number. In the example, 10% of 25 is 2.5, so the number was rounded to 3.

Round Two: 1740: You are now ready to make your allocations for 1740. Use your total income from 1700 as your capital for this year. Base your decisions as to how many ships and slaves to send on what you have learned from trading in 1700.

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INSTRUCTIONS TO SLAVE TRADERS Cont'd.

Some changes have taken place since 1700. CAN YOU IDENTIFY SOME OF THESE CHANGES? HOW MIGHT THESE CHANGES AFFECT THE SLAVE TRADE? HOW MIGHT THEY AFFECT THE SUPPLY OF SLAVES? HOW MIGHT THEY AFFECT THE DEMAND FOR SLAVES? HOW MIGHT THEY AFFECT THE PRICE OF SLAVES? After you have considered these changes and their effects, your teacher will give you a 1740 Figure Sheet. Note the changes on this sheet from the 1700 sheet. Make your allocations as you did during the 1700 trading. After making your allocations draw a condition card for each ship, and figure your outcome.

After all of the traders in your class have figured their outcome for 1740, discuss the following questions.

A. Why do you think the value of slaves increased from 1700 to 1740? Give as many examples as you can of factors which may have had an impact on this increase, and explain that impact as thoroughly as you can.
B. From your own experience, what conditions were most detrimental to your cargo? Why do you think this was so?
C. From your own experience, do you think it is more profitable to pack a lot of slaves on a few ships or to send more ships with fewer slaves on each one? Why?

Round Three: 1780: The game reopens in 1780. Many changes have taken place since 1740, and some of them are shown on the 1780 Figure Sheet. You can now put up to 250 slaves on each ship. The value of slaves has also increased. They now are priced at $150 each.

You also have some information that slave traders did not have. The graphs on the next page show cotton production in the U.S. from 1790 to 1860. Look at these graphs and try to figure out how the trend shown on them will influence the slave trade in the future. WHAT WILL HAPPEN TO THE DEMAND FOR SLAVES? WHY? Now look at the map on the page following the graphs. DOES THIS MAP SHOW SOMETHING THAT WAS RELATED TO THE SLAVE TRADE? IF SO, WHAT? HOW WAS IT RELATED TO THE SLAVE TRADE?

Now you may make your allocations for 1780. Use your total income from 1740 as your capital for this year. After making your allocations draw a condition card for each ship, and figure your outcome.

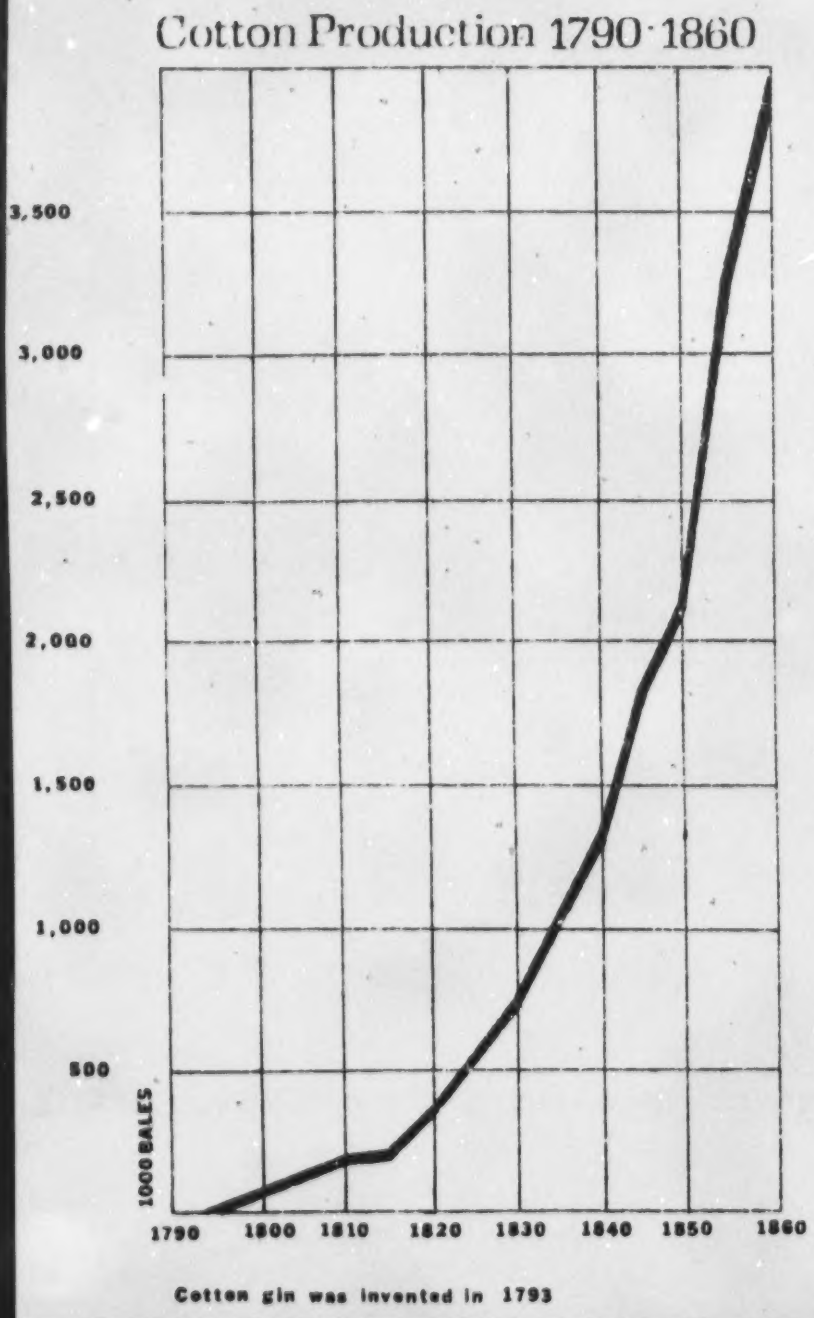
Round Four: 1820: This is the last round of the game. Many changes have taken place since 1780. One of the most important of these is that in 1807 the British outlawed the slave trade. WHAT EFFECTS WILL THIS HAVE ON THE DEMAND FOR SLAVES? THE SUPPLY OF SLAVES? THE PRICE OF SLAVES? A look at the 1820 Figure Sheet will show you that the price of slaves has increased to $200. WHY DO YOU THINK THIS IS SO?

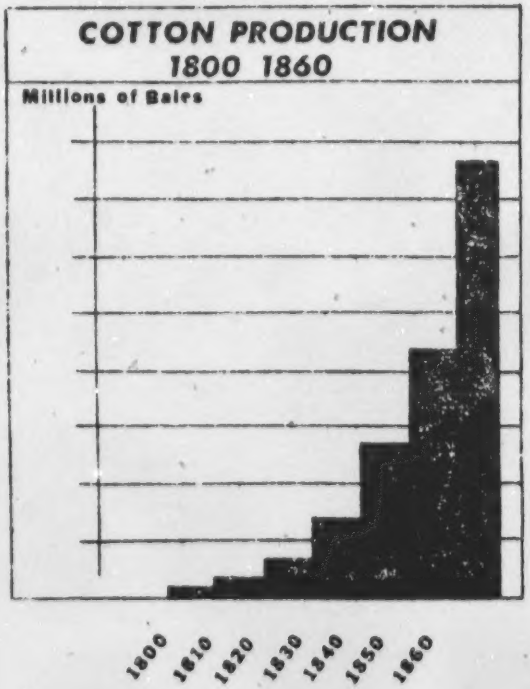
Because the trade is illegal in 1820, the risks have increased significantly. You may choose not to participate in trading this year. If you continue here are the possible outcomes:

A. You may be captured and lose EVERYTHING!
B. The slaves on one ship may revolt and WIPE OUT THAT SHIP!
C. You may get lucky and make it big!

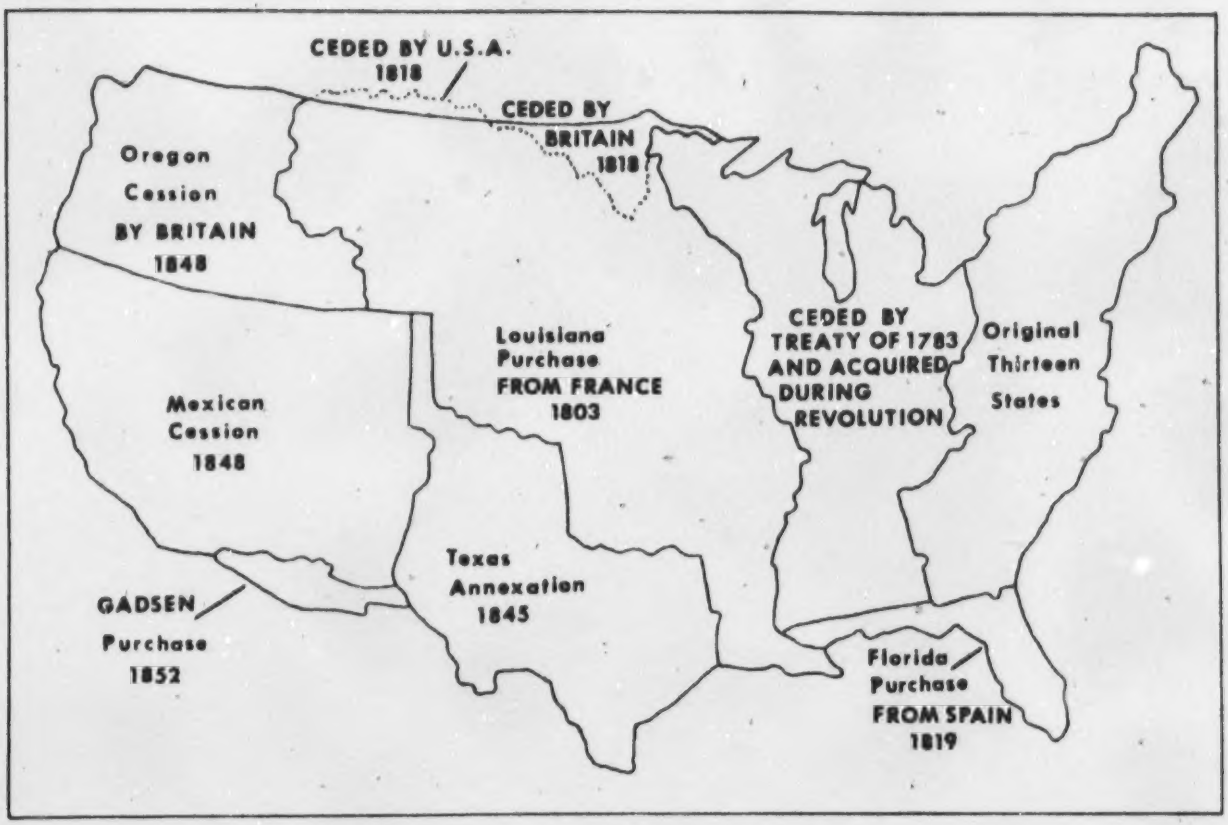
There it is! If you want to try it, you know how to make your allocations. Remember, the more ships you send, the better are the chances of the British catching you.

COTTON PRODUCTION





The Westward Growth of the UNITED STATES



THE SLAVE TRADE

European traders first went to Africa for gold and ivory. The first traders were Portuguese. Beginning in 1441, black slaves were sometimes sold in Europe. After the discovery of America in 1492, there was a great demand for slaves in the New World. The slave trade became very profitable.

Often the slaves were captured by other Africans. African chiefs would send out men to capture members of other tribes. The traders paid the chiefs for the slaves with such goods as rum, cloth and guns and gunpowder.

The slave traders wanted the healthiest and strongest young men and women. They used doctors to help them check which blacks were the healthiest.

The Africans did not want to become slaves. They had to be forced onto the ships. On board they were chained together so that they could not escape.

One of the worst parts of the slave trade was that children were often taken from their mothers and fathers to be sold separately. Both the parents and children were deeply sad when this happened.

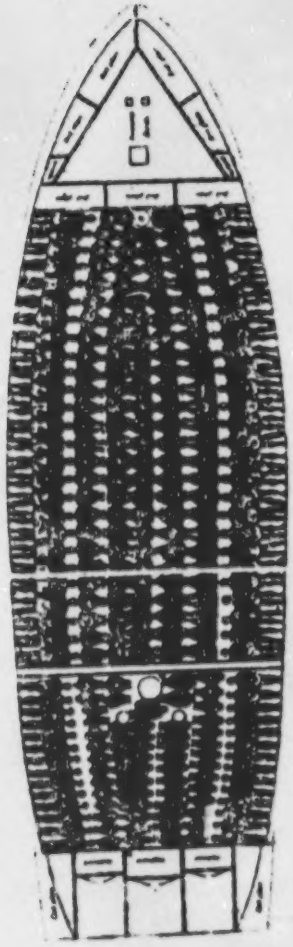
The slave traders carried as many slaves as they could on each ship. The crowded conditions on the ships made it easy for diseases to spread. Some blacks preferred to die rather than become slaves. Some managed to kill themselves by jumping into the ocean, and others tried to commit suicide by refusing to eat.

The slave traders feared uprisings and rebellions on the ships. They took steps to prevent them. One way was to carry people of different tribes on the same ship. Because different tribes spoke different languages, it was hard for the Africans to understand each other. It was difficult for men to organize a rebellion when they could not talk with each other. Nevertheless, some rebellions happened.

Before they reached the slave markets of the New World, the slaves had to survive the voyage. It took months for a sailing vessel to cross the Atlantic from Africa to the New World. And this was, in some ways, the worst part of their journey. As soon as the slaves had been put aboard, the male slaves were shackled with irons. Then they were sent down to the slave deck, in the hold of the ship. The women and children were allowed to roam the ship during the day. They had to go down to their own slave decks at night. All the slaves were forced to sleep uncovered on the rough wooden deck floors. In a stormy passage the skin over their elbows and knees might be worn away to bare bone.

The hold of a slaver was generally about five feet high. It was made smaller by a shelf built all around the main slave deck. The slaves below this shelf and the slaves packed onto it had about twenty-five inches of headroom They could not sit up during the entire voyage. Every inch of space in a slaver was packed with human flesh.

The daily routine on ship was generally as follows: If



ABOARD SHIP

These drawings illustrate how the enslaved were carried aboard ship on the Atlantic crossing. They were chained together in these cramped quarters.

the weather was fine, the male slaves were brought on deck in the morning. Their leg irons were attached to a great chain. At nine they were served a meal. When this had been eaten, the ceremony known as "dancing the slaves" began. This was forced exercise. It consisted of making the slaves jump around as best they could in their chains to the music of a drum or a banjo. At about three in the afternoon the slaves were given another meal. This was the end of their day. After the "meal" they were sent below.

Some slaves went mad under these conditions. They were knocked on the head and thrown overboard. Schools of sharks always followed a slaver.

But the deadliest part of the slave trade was disease. In their crowded and filthy conditions, the slaves might catch various fevers and epidemics. Yellow fever, smallpox, measles, malaria, dysentery, hookworm, elephantiasis, and leprosy all were found aboard ships. They infected the slaves, and they infected the crews. Science had no cures for these diseases. As soon as the telltale pox or the "bloody flux" or any other sign of disease appeared, the unfortunate victim was thrown overboard. Many ships lost more than fifty percent of their human cargo during their crossing of the Atlantic. Some lost as few as four or five percent. The average seems to have been about thirteen percent.

After 1807, the British government outlawed slavery and began an active military campaign against the slave trade. The French and Spanish joined in this effort later. America

remained as the major slave trading power. Smugglers took drastic steps to avoid capture. The method was simply to dump the cargo.

In America the large-scale sale of slaves did not begin until the late 1600's when tobacco and cotton became profitable.

When the slaves arrived in the New World they were usually sold at auctions. In all large towns and cities in the South, there were merchants who bought and sold slaves for a profit. Some dealers had their own slave stockades at trading posts. Here slaves for sale were displayed. Slaves were also displayed in taverns, warehouses, and jails.

The price of a slave depended on his age, physical condition, sex, and training. Healthy slaves between the ages of 18 and 30 were usually the most valuable. Skilled workmen sold for high prices. In a town in Georgia in 1860, a blacksmith sold for $2,245. This was a very high price. Slaveowners sometimes taught their slaves trades in order to increase their value. The price of field hands changed with the price of cotton. Slaves sold for more money when the price of cotton was high. At a slave market in Macon, Georgia, in 1837, the price of slaves ranged from $250 up to $1,250 each. Prices increased steadily from the time the slave trade was stopped in 1808, until the Civil War began in 1861.

CHINESE IMMIGRATION

Beginning in 1848, the flow of Chinese into California continued for 30 years. By 1852 over 25,000 Chinese had come to San Francisco. In 1860 Chinese formed 10 percent of California's population. During the 1870's 123,000 new Chinese arrived in the state.

A few Chinese were in the United States before 1848. Sailors and cabinboys stayed in American ports. Five Chinese students attended a Connecticut school from 1818-1825.

But the main migration of Chinese to America resulted from conditions at home and promise of wealth in the United States. But most Chinese did not plan to stay in the United States.

Almost all Chinese migrants between 1850 and 1880 came from southern China. Economic depression and unemployment were very bad there. There were crop failures from 1847 to 1850. It was difficult for farmers to make a living on small plots.

When news of the California gold discovery in 1848 reached China, America seemed the answer to troubles at home. If only one son of a Chinese farm family could get to America and strike it rich, he could then return and save the family. The Chinese word for California, "Gum San," translates as "Land of the Golden Mountains."

During 1849-1850 ship agents distributed flyers advertising the "Land of the Golden Mountains." They offered passage from China for $40 to $50. The rush to California was on. By the end of 1849 some 500 Chinese had made the crossing. The next year forty-five ships left Hong Kong for California. Up to 500 men were carried in the space below decks. The crossing lasted at least forty-five days. Sometimes it took up to sixty days. Food rations were small, sanitary facilities

poor, access to open air bad.

Young Chinese men (practically no women) regularly left from Hong Kong. There the immigrant contacted a passage broker who advanced him funds for passage to America. Under this credit-ticket system, the immigrant hoped to pay off his debt from his earnings in America. Then, by saving his money, he could return home to his family as a rich man. Indeed, the family was counting on support from him while he was in America.

Soon a regularized system for handling migrants developed. A few Chinese men became merchants in San Francisco. The term merchant meant traders, shopowners, agents, contractors, landlords, and money lenders. These people had much influence over the Chinese population. Merchants quickly recognized the great power their money gave them over Chinese newcomers.

The credit-ticket system of importing Chinese workers was run mostly by San Francisco's Chinese merchants. These men soon organized companies which were a combination Chinese protection society and agency for managing Chinese laborers. A company was organized on a geographical basis. Each handled migrants from different parts of China. The earliest company started in 1851. Soon there were six companies. Each company had headquarters in San Francisco with branch offices in Sacramento and Stockton. In each complex were a Buddhist temple and a center for ceremonies and celebrations.

Each company made all arrangements for newcomers. It provided temporary housing and food and found jobs. To get a job a migrant signed with his company. The company recorded the amount of his credit-ticket, collected interest, and enforced payment of his debts. Usually the

company also looked after its members' well-being, settled disputes, and sent their bones back to China when they died. Anyone wishing to return to China had to clear all debts with his company first. By 1855 8,900 Chinese had earned enough to sail back to China.

Most Chinese worked in the gold mines. At first they were admired for "their quietness, order, and cheerfulness." But the admiration were off before long. Soon they were being called names. In some mining areas their tents were burned and their equipment destroyed. In 1853 the state started a foreign miners tax of $3 a month.

Chinatown of San Francisco was rapidly taking shape. Wealthy merchants imported carpenters, masons, and building materials to build Chinese houses. Stores sprang up selling hams, dried fish, pork, tea, and rice along with copper pots, fans, shawls, incense sticks, and chess games.

In 1852 the first Chinese opera was performed. A Chinese language paper began publishing in 1854. By that time Chinatown was a community of 23 general stores, 15 apothecaries, 5 butchers, 5 bakers, 5 barbers, 5 herbalists, 3 lumber yards, a candle maker, a curio carver, and 5 restaurants. Visitors found the restaurants appealing.

As the gold supply in California began to drop, the Chinese drifted off to other mining regions in Oregon, Idaho, Montana, Wyoming, Nevada, Utah, and Colorado. Or they took other jobs. Many worked on the building of the Central Pacific Railroad.

Despite the contribution of Chinese to the West's businesses, laws were made to drive them out. In the 1850's their testimony was ruled inadmissable in court. They were not eligible to become citizens. In 1859 separate schools were required for Chinese children in California.

As immigration increased, restriction grew. Many laws against the Chinese were passed. Most of these were later ruled unconstitutional. A Los Angeles riot in 1871 killed eighteen Chinese residents. The Workingmen's party chanted "The Chinese Must Go." A new California constitution in 1870 banned government employment of Chinese workers. Outside California there were also attacks on the Chinese.

A congressional bill to block all Chinese immigration in 1880 was vetoed since it violated the 1868 Burlingame Treaty with China. But in 1882 after the treaty was revised, Congress passed the Chinese Exclusion Act. This Act barred Chinese workers' entrance into the United States for the next ten years. (Certain other classes -- students, merchants -- were still permitted.) The exclusion part of the Act was renewed every ten years. It was extended until it became an absolute bar. Not until 1943, when the United States and China were partners in the war against Japan, would the immigration be lifted.

MIGRATION FROM FINLAND TO THE UNITED STATES

Migration from Finland to the United States started after 1850. Because of its location, Finland had not been part of earlier movements from western European countries to North America. The flow of Finns to America soon became heavy. More than three hundred and fifty thousand people left their country in search of better conditions on the other side of the Atlantic Ocean.

There had been earlier Finnish settlements in northern America. But only a few Finns came each year.

From 1800 to 1850 a number of Finns moved to Alaska. Alaska still belonged to Russia. Finland was a Grand Duchy under Russian rule. Most of these Finns were either fishermen or whale and fur hunters. Two Finns served as governors of Alaska. After the United States bought Alaska in 1867, some of the Finns returned to Finland. Others moved to the United States proper or to Canada. When gold was found in Alaska during the 1880's the Finns started moving there again. During the early 1900's, the Finns and Norwegians were the largest foreign-born groups in Alaska. The last acting governor of Alaska before it became a state was born of Finnish parents. The Finns' largest concentrations in Alaska have been Sitka, Juneau-Douglas, Fairbanks, and Anchorage.

The great movement from Finland to America started during the 1860's. A copper mining company in Hancock, Michigan, sent for workers in northern Norway. Finns working there told other Finns of the wonderful country in the West. Conditions in Finland at the time forced some people to earn a living elsewhere. Cheap farming land, employment, and good wages were good news to people in western and northern Finland. The example

of those who had moved to the New World encouraged others to follow. So began the "American fever," which raged from 1870 until 1920.

The following numbers show the size of the migration from Finland to America at its peak:

Year	Number of migrants
1883-1892	36,401
1893-1900	47,557
1901-1910	158,832
1911-1920	67,346

In 1920, there were 149,824 Finnish-born persons in the United States. That year, a new immigration law limited the number of immigrants from Finland to about five hundred and sixty per year. Many emigrants returned to Finland. By 1950, the number of Finland-born persons in the United States was only 95,506.

When the American fever was at its peak in 1902, twenty-three thousand people left Finland. The loss of young people between twenty and thirty from Finland was great. More than 43 percent of the young migrants were men. Most of them came from farming areas.

The Finns had to face many hardships in America. New conditions, strange customs, a different language, and homesickness led them to seek other Finnish immigrants. This led to the formation of several "Finnish" communities in the United States. The first was in the Hancock area in northern Michigan. Finns originally went to Hancock to work in the mines. Later more and more turned to farming. The importance of the Finnish there is still seen in the use of many Finnish place-names.

Finnish immigrants tended to settle in the northern states. The climate and scenery were like the home country. They spoke little if any English. Accustomed to hard manual labor, they usually had to earn their living in the heaviest kind of work: mining, lumbering, loading

and clearing forests. There were Finnish miners all over the country. Some went as far west as Colorado and California. Partly due to mining, partly to lumbering and farming, large Finnish areas grew in northern Minnesota. The ports of the Great Lakes had plenty of loading work. Many Finns settled near the lakes. In the East, Finns worked as factory hands in cities. By the time the Finns came here, much of the best farm land had been taken by others. There were still homesteads in the north. Finnish farmers opened up areas in the states of Minnesota, Michigan -- the two states with the largest Finnish population -- and the Dakotas. Other Finns took up farming in the eastern and western coastal states. Some Finns began specializing: some grew cranberries, blueberries or other fruits; others raised cattle or poultry. The large cities like New York, Chicago, Los Angeles, San Francisco, or Seattle attracted Finns. Finnish fishermen were found along the big western rivers and on the northern coast of the Pacific. Many immigrant girls worked in textile mills and factories. Most Finnish women in America did their day's work at home. Often they worked hard on the farm and raised large families.

Age and Sex of Immigrants

Those immigrants who arrived since 1960 are younger than the population as a whole. Eighty-six percent of the recent arrivals (since 1960) are under 45.

When we look at the total of 9.6 million foreign born people in the United States, we see that many came to America at the turn of the century, during the heyday of immigration. These people are now in their 70s, 80s, and 90s. At that time most were in their 20s, 30s, and 40s. Immigrants tend to be relatively young.

A majority of US immigrants up until the year 1922 were male. In fact, the male proportion was around 60 percent for about 100 years starting in 1820. In 1946 an all-time low was registered when only 25 percent of those admitted were male.

Immigrants by Age

1951 - 1960

Under 16 years	576,000
16 - 44 years	1,596,000
45 years and over	343,000

NORTH FROM MEXICO

It was not silver but international politics that led to the settlement of the land north of Mexico. The Spaniards decided to protect Spanish territorial interest by settling the region. Juan de Oñate led a large party there in 1598. They founded San Gabriel de los Españoles, today called Chamita. Santa Fe de San Francisco became the center for Nuevo Mexico. This was an area much larger than the present-day state of New Mexico. It covered what are now parts of Arizona, Colorado, Texas, Nebraska, and Oklahoma.

Mining was the only economic reason for settlement. The small amount of mineral wealth failed to attract enough settlers. Christianization of the Pueblo Indians became an important reason for starting colonies there.

After 100 years of settlement, twenty-five missions had been set up. Between 60,000 and 90,000 Indians lived in about ninety villages. Santa Fe, the capital, had a population of about 1,000. Three-fourths of these were mestizos, mixed Spanish and Indian.

The northern colonies ran into trouble. The Pueblo Indians rose up in revolt. They attacked all Spanish settlements in the region. They killed men, women, and children. Only Santa Fe held off the first attack. Soon, however, the Spaniards were forced to leave all of northern Nuevo Mexico.

In 1692 the Spanish were successful in retaking Santa Fe. The Indian pueblos soon began to accept Spanish authority.

The Spaniards founded Albuquerque in 1706. Attacks by Navajos, Apaches, and Comanches, who surrounded the Pueblo region, made growth in Nuevo Mexico difficult and slow.

In the early 1700s French traders began to come into Nuevo Mexico. They wanted to trade with Spaniards and Indians. The Spanish officials built up the mission system and encouraged new settlement. In 1800 fewer than 8,000 Mexican settlers in fourteen towns and villages lived in Nuevo Mexico.

The settlement of the areas that have come to be the states of Texas and California had a different history. French interest in Texas led to more Spanish military and mission settlements. In 1690 two missions were started. The following year the area of Texas was made a province of Mexico. Later six more missions and a fort were founded.

Spain bought Louisiana from France in 1763. The Texas area developed slowly. In 1800 the Mexican population of Texas was about 3,500. About half of the settlers lived in San Antonio. The rest lived in two other settlements.

The fear of French expansion encouraged Mexican settlement in Texas. It was the fear of both Russian and English growth that led to Spanish efforts to settle California. In the 1760s reports that the Russians were moving southward from Alaska reached the Spanish. These reports and English activity raised Spanish fears. They took steps against these moves.

The mission of San Diego was started in 1769. The fort at Monterey started the following year. By 1823 twenty-one new

missions had been built. In addition, three forts and three towns were started between Mexico and San Francisco Bay.

In summary, the first European settlement of the Southwest was by the Spaniards between 1530 and 1800. Major areas of settlement were in what are now the states of New Mexico, Texas, and California.

In Arizona and New Mexico, settlements were built for mining and missionary activities. In Texas and California settlements were started to hold back other countries. The economy of the first two areas was based partly on mining; this meant that it was an export economy with associated activities. In Texas and California ranching and farming became important.

The majority of settlers were mestizos, Mexican Indians, and mulatos. The government in Mexico City recruited colonists for these places from the lower classes. They were promised land and other things. This northern frontier offered opportunities to the poorer people of Mexico.

THE REMOVAL OF THE CHOCTAW INDIANS

On a February morning in 1832 the steamboat Huron left Vicksburg, Mississippi. This was no ordinary trip for the Huron. Hundreds of onlookers came to watch it leave. This was an important historic event. The Choctaw Indians from Mississippi were being removed to Indian Territory.

Most of the spectators were white settlers. They stood to gain from Indian removal. Most clapped each other on the back. President Jackson had said that all eastern Indians were to be taken from their homes and moved west of the Mississippi River.

Maybe some of those whites wondered if the removal agreed with the ideals in the Declaration of Independence and the preamble to the Constitution of the United States. Did freedom of the individual mean freedom to take land from its original owners? Were forced treaties a violation of private property?

As the steamboat moved away, the Choctaws watched their beloved Mississippi fade into the distance.

Why and how did this tragedy happen to the Choctaw Nation?

The Choctaw Nation was the first Indian tribe to be removed to the West. The Choctaws were not only highly civilized, but also one of the largest Indian nations living east of the Mississippi River. They had a peace-loving nature. Many of them had even fought alongside American soldiers in the Creek War of 1813.

They had developed into one of the most advanced Indian nations east of the Mississippi River. The Choctaws had a democratic governmental system. It divided the nation into three separate districts—the Northwestern, the Northeastern, and the Southern. Each had a mingo (principal chief), elected by the men of the district.

The mingo was responsible for the over-all government of his district. He was assisted by elected captains and sub-captains. Lastly, there were war chiefs, who represented the military. They were under the complete control of the mingo.

As farmers the Choctaws were very good. They cleared the land around their villages by burning the underbrush. They planted corn, beans, pumpkins and melons.

The Choctaws raised so much corn that they actually produced a surplus which they sold to their neighbors. With plenty of food they were able to support a larger population than other tribes. The Choctaws did not sell all of their surplus corn. Instead they used much of it in raising large herds of cattle. They even sold stock to white settlers.

This success helped to settle the Choctaw Nation in central and south Mississippi. Their homes were permanent-type structures. Log and stucco houses were grouped together near their farm land.

The Choctaw Nation was powerful in lower Mississippi Valley diplomacy. Spain, France, Great Britain, and the United States wanted to be friendly with the Choctaw Nation.

After the War of 1812 things changed. American settlers began moving into Mississippi, and outnumbering the Indians. There were five times as many whites living on one-third as much land. Wanting the Choctaw lands, they squatted there, daring the Indians to move them. They killed Choctaw livestock, and carried away Indian property. Protest from other whites and from the Indians were ignored. Local officers and the courts looked the other way while Mississippi newspapers drummed up hate. One could almost foresee the future of the Choctaws.

On January 19, 1830, Mississippi passed an act extending the laws of the state "over the persons and property of the Indians resident within its limits." If the Indians did not obey, they would be fined and put in prison. This was the first step in removal.

There were many arguments against removal: (1) The Choctaws were an independent nation; (2) if they were removed immediately, they would suffer from exposure because of the lack of transportation; (3) removal would break all the ties the Indians now had with the whites in Mississippi, which would destroy the hope of civilizing them; (4) the western lands were inferior; (5) segregating the Indians in one place would lead to fighting among themselves; (6) no guarantee of permanent possession of any new country could be given to the Choctaws, and they would hardly be settled before the whites would force them to move again and again; and (7) the Choctaws would not move

voluntarily, and they could not be forced to leave.

Several reasons why removal was necessary were given: (1) Mississippi needed more land to attract immigrants from the East; (2) the Choctaws did not pay taxes; (3) the Choctaws hid run-away slaves and white criminals; (4) they were hunters, not farmers; (5) they were inferior human beings; and (6) the Choctaw lands were all within the state's boundaries and belonged to Mississippi.

The arguments in Mississippi spread across the country during 1830. People in every section discussed the arguments for and against the removal policy.

There was agreement throughout the United States that, whether it was just or not, the Indians would have to move west to avoid extinction.

In March, 1830, all the Choctaw leaders had a council meeting to decide what to do about the threat from Mississippi and the federal government. At this meeting Greenwood LeFlore, a former mingo, presented a plan to the council. For every man and woman with a child the plan called for the sale of 640 acres of Choctaw Mississippi land for cash to the state. For every young man it allowed one-half section for the same purpose. In addition to whatever cash he got from the sale of land, each captain would be given a suit of clothes, a broad sword, and fifty dollars annually for four years. Every tribesman would receive a good rifle with plenty of rifle powder and lead, an axe, a hoe, a plough, a blanket,

and a brass kettle. Each woman would receive a spinning wheel and a loom. Furthermore, all of the Indians' possessions would be moved without charge to the new lands. The government would feed and clothe the migrants for twelve months after they left Mississippi. The United States would defend the migrants with soldiers and probably give the nation fifty thousand dollars annually forever.

The council unanimously elected LeFlore chief of the northwestern district. Then, the Choctaw chiefs, captains and warriors all came forward, resigned their offices, and unanimously elected Greenwood LeFlore chief of the entire nation. It was an honor never given a Choctaw chief.

The plan was sent to Washington. It was not the answer to the Indian removal problem. But it did show the president that many Choctaws thought they could not avoid removal.

LeFlore's plan was rejected by the government.

The president saw LeFlore's treaty as a sign of weakness. He thought the time had come for a final removal treaty.

On September 27, 1830, the Treaty of Dancing Rabbit Creek was signed. It followed Andrew Jackson's policy of forcing their removal.

The Choctaws faced suffering from hunger and cold, sickness and death in the removal to their new home in Indian Territory. This was the tragic end to the Choctaw struggle.

ATLANTA: NEW MECCA FOR YOUNG BLACKS

"Blacks are beginning to leave the North to come back down South where they started," says businessman Edward D. Alston Jr.

More than a year ago, Alston returned to Atlanta from Washington, D.C. He became president of a heating and air conditioning firm in downtown Atlanta. The firm now employs 16 persons. "Coming South," Alston explains, "was a big commitment with me. I know that my qualifications make me attractive to the white employer. I believe people like me are going to have to build strong institutions if we want our people to survive."

Many blacks still think of New York, Chicago and other northern cities as "the land of opportunity." But many young blacks who have traveled in, lived in, or gone to colleges in the North feel that the grass is greener in the South. For reasons from the weather to wealth, they are moving back to the South. Atlanta is the favorite town.

"I'm very happy here," says Barbara Merriday. "The pace is just right." She is an engineer's associate. She recalls that in her small hometown, "If you didn't teach, there was very little else to do." Like so many others, she headed north. Her journey took her to New York City. There she worked as a research assistant. Later she was a science teacher in the New York public schools. Mrs. Merriday saw the beauty of Atlanta during the many trips she and her husband made there. That sold her on the city. It was the southern home she wanted.

"Atlanta has always been a center," says Tarlee Brown, "for attracting investments and developments. Whatever happens here sets the pace for other southern cities." Brown, a 32-year-old architect, says he checked out Nashville, Dallas and Houston. He found them missing the chances and challenges found in Atlanta. He is the chief of planning for the Parsons, Brinckerhoff-Tudor Bechtel engineering firm. They are constructing Atlanta's $1.3 billion rapid transit system. Brown has already accepted a challenge.

Ernest Dixon, a financial consultant, spent most of his time in Columbus, Ohio. "It was just too cold up there for me," he says. "I was a little frightened about coming back home, though. While I was away, I became interested in amateur sports car racing. I just didn't know what to expect once I came back South and tried to compete." When Dixon decided to leave Ohio, he left the banking jobs he held there. He came back to Atlanta, the city of his birth. He found that he could race on the two sports car tracks in Georgia without trouble. Dixon also learned that there were three sports car tracks in Florida, one each in Alabama and Virginia. He could drive to all of them within a day.

"I didn't really want to come South," says Lois Johnson, a pretty Pennsylvanian. She liked her native state. But her 28-year-old husband, Handy, decided to stay there. He got a job just after leaving college. South Carolina was the first stop for the Johnsons before they settled in Atlanta. They

both worked for the state, but they wanted to live in a city. "There is nothing special about staying in the North. About the only thing that could get me back up there is a lot of money," Johnson says. Mrs. Johnson now agrees.

Another young executive, James Bell, says that his "life style was not suited to the North." Bell worked in Binghamton, New York, before returning to the South. "My wife really hated Binghamton. Besides, there were just not enough black folks there." "The life tempo was off as far as my background was concerned." "My feelings," says Bell, "are along the line of the southern gentleman.' I mean I respect myself and respect others. I believe in a high standard of ethnic conduct. I believe in being neighborly."

Southern hospitality is often praised. Brenda Belton says this: "The first time I went to church in Atlanta, I stood to say that I was a visitor and after services were over someone invited me to their home for dinner." Nothing quite like that happened to her while she worked in New York City and in Washington, D.C. Ms. Belton is in the South now. She will soon get her doctoral degree from Atlanta University.

John Ash, a 28-year-old Floridian, landed a job as store manager for the Goodyear tire company in Los Angeles. Then he transferred to Atlanta, the hometown of his wife, Barbara. "The high cost of land and high property taxes in California made Atlanta very attractive to us," Ash says. "It just seemed as if we could get more for our money by settling here."

To win political power David Franklin came back to the land of his birth. Franklin joined a black Atlanta law firm. He now specializes in entertainment law. He handles such clients as singers Roberta Flack and Donnie Hathaway and composer-musician Quincy Jones. As the new land of opportunity for blacks moving South, "Atlanta has succeeded in spite of itself," Franklin feels.

If the present trend continues, Atlanta will no doubt become known as the homecoming capital of the South.

AMERICANS ON THE MOVE

Walter Matsinger was stalled in a bumper-to-bumper traffic jam on his way home in Philadelphia. "This is it," Matsinger said to himself. He knew that he had to leave the city, its crime, its pollution. The whole area seemed old and drab. Matsinger went home, packed and headed for the Southwest. Today he is happily settled in Tucson, Arizona.

Scott Snowden could have landed a job in one of San Francisco's law firms. But Snowden found himself growing tired of "the constant roar in the city." With his wife, he went to St. Helena, a tiny town in the Napa Valley wine country. He earns less than $15,000 a year. But he can fish for bass in the local ponds. At night he hears only the calls of coyotes.

William Menzel realized that "if you said hi to people on the streets, they thought you were going to mug them." He loaded up his wife and four children. They headed for Cedar Rapids, Iowa. He says now, "my wife can walk the dog at 2 a.m. without fear. The kids haven't been mugged on the way to school or had their lunches taken away from them."

All of these people are examples of the new American migrants. They are looking for the good life in places that are smaller, sunnier, and safer. Because of the migration, many cities are falling into decline. Millions of Americans have changed their way of life.

There are three patterns of movement:

Out of the Big Cities. Once Americans moved to the big cities and

their suburbs in search of jobs, education and excitement. They are now moving to smaller cities and towns. Between 1970 and 1974, over 1.7 million more Americans left the big city areas than moved into them. Through migration, the New York area alone lost half a million people. Chicago lost a quarter of a million. Of the 16 city areas that have more than 2 million people each, eight have lost population since 1970. Besides New York and Chicago, they are Los Angeles, Philadelphia, Detroit, St. Louis, Pittsburgh and Newark. In 1973 and 1974 three others lost population: Boston, San Francisco and Long Island's Nassau-Suffolk. The big suburbs are no longer growing as fast as they did in the 1960s. Some have lost population since 1970.

To the Countryside. The nation's rural areas since 1970 have been growing faster than its urban areas. In the West, rural areas had a total growth of 9.2% between 1970 and 1974. The national average was 4.8%. During that period, Mississippi and Alabama gained through migration into their states. In the Northeast, New Hampshire grew by 10.9%, Maine by 6.6% and Vermont by 5.9%.

To the South and Southwest. Americans are rapidly leaving the Northern and Eastern states. They are heading toward the South and West. In the last five years 2,537,000 people migrated from the Northeastern and North Central states to the Southern and Western states. The fastest-growing states in the nation are Arizona, Florida, Nevada, Idaho and Colorado. The nation's new boom region is the Sunbelt -- the warmlands stretching from Southern California to the Carolinas.

These new migrations suggest a major change in Americans' expectations. "Most Americans don't want more quantity of anything, but more quality in what they've got."

Bigness is no longer thought to be better. Dollars do not mean a more satisfying life. Success is more a matter of enjoying where one is than of moving ahead. Many are migrating for different reasons. They find that in the smaller cities and towns there is more room for competition and expansion.

Those who are moving out are looking for a place where it is safer, where there is better service, and where the school system is better.

Crime is the biggest reason for leaving the cities. Almost all of the migrants tell stories of muggings, of houses burglarized, of children on drugs. Overcrowded schools, pollution and noise are driving many out. So are heavy taxes and high costs of living.

Sometimes there is an unspoken desire to get away from the black urban centers. Some blacks, of course, are leaving the cities just as fast as whites. A scientist warns, there is a danger that U.S. society "is dividing into those who can buy the new life-style and those who are left."

Historically, there were good reasons why Americans came into the cities. Country and small-town life could be difficult and dull and remote. But rural and small-town life has been modernized and is no longer isolated. Most places are now within an hour or two's drive of a city. Television pipes its news and entertainment into the countryside. Universities have opened branches and hundreds of two-year community colleges have sprung up in small towns.

Many migrants are looking for a life midway between the city and nature. Neil Carey from Los Angeles believes he has found that in Lexington, Kentucky (pop. 187,200). Lexington is a delightful mixture of old residential neighborhoods, a rebuilt downtown, a state university and a low unemployment rate. Carey and his wife did not like Los Angeles. Says Carey: "People were always moving, moving, moving. Every raise seemed to mean a new car, new house, new friends."

The Careys are living on a much reduced income. They have gladly settled for a more modest style of life.

Many of the migrants are following the jobs. More companies are leaving the cities. Since 1970, employment has grown at a faster rate in rural counties. Again, most of the movement is to the South and West. More than half of all new plant construction and expansion has been going on in those areas.

Industries have moved into the South and Southwest in part because taxes are relatively low. Unions are relatively weak. Heating and other costs are low.

People who relocate often have to take pay cuts. In most cases they find that the dollar goes further. People in the South and West spend less for taxes, housing, fuel, clothing and most services. The cost of a high standard of living for a family of four in New York City is 1/3 higher than in Houston or Nashville. Air conditioning has made the long, hot summers bearable.

In many ways, the migrants from the North and the East are helping to change the South. It is becoming more sophisticated. Yankees who move there find themselves welcomed, mostly because they bring new money, skills and opportunity with them.

The U.S. is more than ever a nation of migrants. Never before have so many Americans been able to change their lives so quickly. Americans undoubtedly will continue to make such choices well into the '80s. The age group that likes to move the most is between 25 and 29. Since the peak year for births in the U.S. was 1961, when 4,350,000 children were born, the biggest migration is yet to come.